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INSTITUTE OF CHILD STUDY
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*Babies who live in Institutions**

BETTY FLINT†

RECENTLY we have been studying a number of babies who are living in an institution. This article reports some of the things we have learned.

Some earlier research workers had discovered institutional babies showed certain characteristics such as poor physical development, and lack of interest in the everyday happenings of their own world. Their play was apathetic and they seldom used toys, or did so in a purposeless, random way. Any relationship which they seemed to establish with adults who looked after them or with children who were near was superficial, lacking in real warmth, anticipation of delight, and depth of interest. They displayed many tics, such as head-banging, bed-rocking, persistent thumb-sucking, and hair-pulling. Any attempt to assess their developmental level by tests met either with total failure or demonstrated gross retardation in their rate of development.

Most of the present-day studies are interested in demonstrating that these kinds of symptoms are caused by a lack of a constant "mothering" person to look after such children, a state which is called "maternal deprivation." In our own study at the Institute we have also assumed that an institutional environment lacked some human element thus creating an abnormal condition in an infant. However, our purpose was to deal with the *psychological* implications of these conditions or symptoms. What was happening inwardly to these babies to foster such distressing outward behaviour?

We attempted to assess this by using the Institute of Child Study Infant Security Scale.[1] This scale is made up of a series of items descriptive of the behaviour of babies from birth up to two years of age. It describes

*A brief report of a larger study to be included in a forthcoming publication by Mrs. Flint on *Infant Security*, it is based on a paper given at the Canadian Psychological Association, 1957.

†Mrs. Flint is a member of the Research Division of the Institute in charge of studies in the infant area. She is also associated with the Ryerson Institute of Technology and the Children's Aid Society of Metropolitan Toronto.

[1]This scale which is being prepared for publication has been constructed by Mrs. Flint and her associates during the last seven years.

how a baby functions in his environment and through this indicates his mental health status. Each baby has his particular pattern of endorsements, thus permitting an assessment of his degree of good feeling in his world.

Implicit in the items of this scale is the concept of infant mental health held by the author and other members of the staff of the Institute of Child Study. It is believed that in order to be "secure"[2] (mentally healthy) a baby must have a strong relationship of dependence on the persons most directly taking care of him. From this dependent relationship the baby derives a feeling of self-worth, and this in turn gives him the self-confidence necessary to be "expansive" in his environment. This "expansiveness" is expressed in his attempts to do things for himself and it can be observed and measured as he plays with play materials, establishes and enjoys social contacts with adults and other children, and approaches and solves new problems which present themselves in his daily living. The degree of effort which he puts into living gives some indication of his feeling of "self-trust." His degree of self-trust is a measure of his security.

THE INSTITUTIONAL STUDY

Sixteen infants in an institution were chosen for this study; fourteen had been living there from birth, and the other two had been admitted at the age of four and six months. All the babies ranged in age from two to twenty months of age. Every child was observed once a month for five months and his behaviour recorded on the Infant Security Scale. The observer[3] went to the institution once weekly to see four children each day. She spent approximately five hours observing, playing with, feeding, and testing babies. To her own observations were added the evaluations of the attendants who worked with the babies every day.

The institution, formerly a beautiful home, had been redesigned to accommodate infants from birth to eighteen months of age. Many of the children had to be maintained there until three years of age because of lack of foster homes; it was therefore overcrowded. Seven or eight babies were in each beautiful, well-equipped, spotless nursery. The cots were partitioned off, so that the babies in effect were isolated from one another. As the children grew they were moved to a nursery with older children. Meals were brought from the kitchen, portioned out for each child. Form and manner of presentation remained very much the same whether for younger or older children. They were not permitted to feed themselves until after eighteen months of age. Clothes were shared on a community basis. The children seldom went outdoors during the fall and winter

[2]See June issue of the Bulletin of the Institute of Child Study.

[3]All observations were made by Miss Mary Kilgour, a graduate nurse who holds the Diploma of Child Study and is a member of the Institute staff.

owing to lack of staff to dress them. A plastic toy was hung on each infant's crib, and as he became older a variety of stuffed animals and a few plastic toys were made available.

Children under ten months of age were seldom out of their cribs except for bathing and eating. Those over ten months were placed on their own nursery floor one hour every morning, while toddlers might be out of their cribs for three hours every day. Few of the children ever went beyond the confines of their own nursery. Limited staff necessitated that the attendants work quickly with each child and as a result, little conversation or play was indulged in.

When the study was completed, every record was scored to permit the comparison of one child with another and to reveal any change in the individual children's mental health which might appear from month to month.

SOME OF THE RESULTS

1. There was a general decrease in security scores as the children grew older. When the children were considered individually, all but one showed a decrease in security score over the five-month period. Further, the youngest children in the group showed the greatest decrease in score from first to last testing.

2. One of the most interesting findings of this study was the striking individual difference in security scores and patterns of decrease. Each child showed a unique scoring pattern. This is well illustrated by the scores of two children, both nine months of age and of comparable length of experience in the institution, whose scores were so widely divergent as $-.03$ and $+.40$.

3. Another fact which became evident about these babies was their strong reaction to change. During the course of the study, eleven of the babies were moved on to the nursery housing older children. Nine of these babies showed a decline in security score when they were measured after the change, seven of the decreases seemed severe. This was surprising in view of the change being an apparently insignificant one, that is, from one ward to another quite similar room. The marked decline in security scores on change of nursery would indicate that these children are unduly fearful of change. This conclusion was reinforced by the experimenter, who found on taking the children outside the confines of their own nursery that they screamed, became panic stricken, and sometimes "froze" in one spot. It appears that these children have developed no inner psychological strength (self-trust) nor have they developed any trust in the people in their surroundings. Having nothing on which to depend they have fixated on the physical surroundings of their familiar room and cot

for the maintenance of their security. Removal of these surroundings is equivalent to the removal of all the "props" by which the child maintains even a minimal feeling of easiness in his world.

4. Finally, when the scores of this group of children were compared with scores of a group of children raised in their own homes, it was found that the institution babies were consistently lower in score. This difference became more marked with older children. When the individual scores of institution and home babies were ranked according to age it was apparent that a few of the institutionalized babies up to ten months of age had scores that were comparable to babies in homes, but after ten months the scores of the institutionalized babies fell further below those of the home babies.

AN INDIVIDUAL CASE—THE STORY OF LORELEI

In order to evaluate developmentally any psychological change which was taking place in all the babies, a detailed report was written about each child. In this, everything that the scale and the experimenter could tell us about the baby for the five-month period was included. A brief report of one of these children follows:

Lorelei's monthly security scores indicate a steady decline in mental health status (+.49 +.40 +.44 +.29 +.21). From the first observation at seven months of age when she was an eager, lovable baby, to the last observation when she was solemn, sad and inert, she presents a frightening picture. The fact that her security status declined as she received less and less attention would lead us to believe that these were related phenomena. In her first nursery, her bed was at the door, where she received considerable attention from those passing up and down the hall. She was a favourite, spoken to by everyone, petted, carried about, and talked to. Later, after change of nursery, she was given less attention and had to assume the role of one of many children. Directly after the change, it appears that she struggled to maintain some adult attention by screaming for what she had previously known. When no response was forthcoming she appeared to give up and withdraw into apathy, so that during her last observation she responded in a very meagre way to deliberate adult stimulation. She spent periods of time rocking, or standing with her eyes closed and her head resting dejectedly on the rails of her crib.

In the routine areas of her life, Lorelei showed a picture of normal adjustment from 7 to 10 months of age. After this, eating, sleeping and elimination habits all showed symptoms of disturbance. She lost interest in food, her sleeping habits became restless and generally poor, she showed increasing signs of passivity when diapered or bathed. The normal baby activity of kicking, moving about, and vocalization, obvious during the first two observations, decreased until by 9 months of age she showed little, if any, interest in vocalization, and by 13 months of age, none at all was in evidence.

From 9 months of age on, she showed a decreasing enthusiasm for both adults and children and a decreasing interest in toys. Some emotional resilience was apparently still present in so far as she would still respond to cuddling and could be comforted when upset. While trusting an adult in this direct and warm kind of contact, she seemed to have become apprehensive and tense if played with in a boisterous fashion.

In general this little girl gives the impression of one who needs direct physical and social contact with an adult. It seems that this is the one

thing to which she holds in her environment, while her interest in other things such as toys and routine procedures has faded. In view of her rapid decline in score when her environment deprived her of this type of contact, it is felt that she may be more dependent on this kind of stimulation for the maintenance of her good feeling than were some of the other babies.

Perhaps Lorelei's mental health could be restored through a building up of a relationship with adults, through a large amount of physical contact. Should this be started immediately, her recovery might be rapid. Should it be neglected, her mental health will probably decline to a severe degree.

SOME IMPLICATIONS

What do all these findings mean to the psychological development of babies? In view of the decline in scores of most of these babies, it is evident that the institutional environment has had an adverse effect on their security. The particularly rapid decline which appeared with the youngest children suggests that a very young infant is particularly sensitive to his surroundings, his emotional climate, and his everyday experiences. The period of infancy, contrary to popular belief, is not merely a period of blissful unawareness, but rather is crucial to the development of a sense of self-worth and easiness in one's world.

The fact that the scores as a whole were well below those of children reared in their own homes would indicate that institutional care, particularly under existing conditions, can never be as salutary to mental health as home care. On the other hand, it appears that *some* children can maintain adequate mental health up to around ten months of age in such environment. Therefore, if it were possible to make institutional personnel aware of the importance of satisfying the human needs of a baby as well as the physical needs, it might be possible to make this very early experience benign rather than malevolent.

The tremendous range in scores of these children indicates strongly that each child will have his own adjustment to make to an institutional experience. Some children seem to have more psychological strength than others, and will yield less readily to the inroads of a sterile environment. Some children will be devastated rapidly while others will maintain a shred of personality strength for a relatively long time. If institutional care *must* be given, a closer study of the strength and weakness of each infant's personality would permit the selection of infants who could sustain themselves for a time in such settings, while those whose mental health could be maintained only in home care could have this consideration first in placement.

"My Child goes to a Research School"

MARY L. NORTHWAY*

THE ST. GEORGE'S SCHOOLS of the Institute of Child Study at the University of Toronto are in essence research laboratories. They are financed for the most part through a Federal Health Grant given for the purpose of studying the development of children. Each child as soon as he is enrolled becomes a research subject. He has a number and a file. Each parent agrees to co-operate to the fullest possible extent with the research programme.

What is it like for a child to be part of a research organization, and what is it like to be the parent of a child who goes to a research school? The answers to these questions depend upon the purpose of the research. As we at the Institute are concerned with studying mental health, not mental illness, we want to discover how a child grows in an environment which is as conducive as possible to the promotion of mental health. Therefore our schools are as salutary as we know how to make them. They are, of course, not perfect; indeed, it is doubtful whether the so-called "perfect" environment could produce what we mean by mental health.

Many visitors come to the Institute. They may spend the entire day in the building without realizing they are in a research organization. They see children playing in small groups in the garden; they observe youngsters joining in music in the nursery school; they watch kindergarten children listening to a story; and they see the older boys and girls busy with reading, writing and arithmetic. The school looks like most schools. The groups are smaller; there is less mass activity; there are, perhaps, more children working ardently on things which particularly interest them. There are no bells, few rules, no evidence of fear of the teachers; and yet a quiet discipline and cheerful orderliness prevail.

Should the visitor wander far enough through the building, he would find tucked away upstairs rooms less gay than the classrooms and furnished with typewriters and files. This is the research corner. It is here that records and tests and charts, reports and studies, are kept. He might find the research staff in a meeting, possibly arguing vehemently about some statistical formula. He might encounter graduate students working on records and sweating over correlations and chi squares. He might

*Dr. Northway is Supervisor of Research at the Institute of Child Study. Her article is based on an address to the Parents' Association of the St. George's Schools, April, 1957.

feel he had moved to another planet, and that the abstract discussion had little to do with the life he had watched downstairs. But he should not be surprised if, in the midst of this, some children suddenly appeared with a message, or to see what was going on. For research is not an isolated activity at the Institute. It permeates its whole life. The research staff know the children, and the children know that research is going on. They understand that we are trying to learn more about children; they do not understand exactly what we are doing, but neither do we ourselves always! We do not try to fool them.

A while ago some of the kindergarten children tried a psychological test. I was checking these in my office when some of the youngsters came to call. One of the boys looked at what I was doing and he said to me, "Why, Dr. Northway, you do the same kind of work here as we do in the kindergarten!"

Does research interfere with the child's school life? Very little; for a great many of our studies consist in observing the child in natural situations as he carries on his everyday activities. We do not ask the children to change; we simply observe them through our research eyes. For instance, here are the nursery school children playing outdoors. They are busy with their tricycles, sandbox, swings, teeter, dividing into groups as they wish and following their own interests and inclinations. A research worker may be observing this for a study of the origins of leadership. He may be recording which children suggest new activities, and which ones take them up. Another may be comparing the type of play at different age levels and trying to discover the process by which the casual, informal activities of the very young children change into organized forms in the older groups.

The children are so familiar with this that they are rarely conscious of the observer. If they are, it's with the attitude, "Well, that's what *he's* busy with, and this is what *I'm* doing; that's all right."

Not all research material is collected from such on-the-spot observation. Scientists, especially in the last fifty years, have devised measures, which are becoming increasingly accurate, for ascertaining how much the child has grown in certain characteristics. Intelligence tests, school achievement tests, personality and social tests, tests of physical skill, are now standardized equipment for the social scientist. They are not yet as accurate as are measures in the physical sciences. We cannot yet measure a child's I.Q. as well as the physician can measure his pulse, blood pressure, and haemoglobin; but the instruments which we use are the best ones available in our field. Such tests are not unpleasant for children; indeed, they are extremely fascinating. Actually, psychologists have really been far more clever than doctors in devising tests for children which are truly intriguing to them. A child is far more likely to rebel at having his tem-

perature taken than at working on an I.Q. test. Such tests, of course, take the children away from the school room; but they are short, some lasting only a few minutes, and none more than an hour. As we are a mental health organization, the research staff has had to learn to adapt its methods to fit into the practical school situation and the real needs of the child.

From the point of view of pure science, it would be desirable to have the child take all the tests one after another. For the children's well-being, this would be absurd. Therefore, we have had to adjust our calculating methods to deal with test results obtained over a period of a year. Should the research staff itself be unaware of this need for adaptability, the children's teachers would soon let them know of any faults, for teachers are always more concerned for children than for science; and it is the teacher who decides whether Johnny should be taken out for a test at a particular time, in terms of what she knows of Johnny's total programme.

What about experiments? In the same way as tests, experiments are designed for the child. To him they are interesting, or he would not participate in them. They seem a very natural part of his life. One experiment now in process is the study of children's "visual-motor co-ordination"—how eyes and hands work together. This sounds rather remote, but actually to the child it means that he watches the screen on which there is a circle and a dot and that in his hand he holds a lever by which he can make the dot move to fit the circle. "It's just like being an aeroplane pilot." Part of this experiment is arranged so that when the lever moves to the right, the dot moves to the left. This is the reverse of what happens in ordinary life. Adults are often quite baffled by this reversal, but we have already learned that children are far more able to adapt to this change from their ordinary world.

We do not try to fool children about such studies. We tell them we are doing them so that we can learn more about children and how they grow. Once a member of the research staff was working with some of the youngsters, and apparently thought he had to make up a story about his test. When one child returned to his class, the teacher heard his friends ask him, "What were you doing up there today?" The boy said, "The man told us it was a game, but it wasn't. It was a test, and a very good one, too."

Each year parents fill in questionnaires, and from time to time special forms are sent to them. These are often a nuisance (although not as great as that of the income tax) and sometimes bewildering. They say, "What do they want to know all this about us for? They can see Jimmy at school." Yet, Jimmy's life at home is the background for his life outside. Unless we know something about his home, we know little actually about

Jimmy. Other parents are aggravated because the questionnaires take so much time; so does all research—hours and days and weeks and years of compiling infinite detail, and out of it gradually making a few new discoveries.

The questionnaires are long. For as we do not yet know what the crucial questions are, we ask about a great many things. Better tests and measures of parent-child relationships will undoubtedly be developed. We do not know yet in what exact way heredity and environment are important, or just what aspects of the child's home environment are the strategic ones. This will come in due time; meanwhile, parents are extremely patient and understand that it may be their answers on one of these seemingly trivial questions that really yield the key to unlock these matters.

Out of all this effort—observations, tests, experiments, and records—does anything of value ever come? Sometimes parents ask such a question, sometimes we do so ourselves.

There has developed a pattern, which has become almost a habit, to say, "Psychology is a very young science. A hundred years hence we may know the answers" or "Well, I suppose some day, something will be found." This has become what is commonly called a defense reaction, or in the Institute's terms, a deputy agent—a way of avoiding looking at the facts clearly. For the facts clearly are that never before in the history of mankind has so much been known about human development. All is not known yet; the secret of the whole matter has not been revealed; it may never be. But through research in the human sciences, our knowledge about human development is greater than it ever has been. This has been gained by the tedious, meticulous and often inspired work of research through the last fifty years. Some of the small part we at the Institute have made in this effort is reported from time to time in this *Bulletin*; more appears in other books and articles that we have produced.

If the achievements of our co-workers in the field of mental illness have been spectacular in the last few years, our own in the field of mental health have not been in vain. That they are less dramatic is not surprising; for our discoveries will never be those of specifics—such as sedatives, shock treatments and tranquillizers. They will consist, I believe, in discoveries of how individuals can grow and live satisfactorily as human beings in a social world. There will be no *one* answer, but already we have good clues as to what *some* of the answers are.

The child who attends a research school is a most fortunate child. Not only is he benefiting himself by being in an environment developed from our best understanding of human beings; but he himself and his parents are continually contributing to the increase of such understanding.

Siblings—Rivalry or Relationship?

SOME THOUGHTS FROM RESEARCH*

SIBLING RIVALRY is a term which has escaped the boundaries of psychological literature and rampaged into popular parlance. That it exists is obvious to anyone who has observed brothers and sisters growing up. There is often a rush to get the bigger piece of cake, envy of the one who gets the two-wheeler, and competition to obtain attention and concern of Mother or Father. There is a good deal of bickering, assertions that "I know more than you" and not infrequently quarrels over how, where, and when something is to be done.

The trouble with child psychologists is that they gaze so violently at childhood that maturity is outside their field of vision. If we were to glance at brothers and sisters during adulthood, and indeed old age, we should see that somehow a permanent and enduring relationship has evolved. "He is my brother," even though I see him but once in five years, disapprove of his wife and criticize his mode of living. Even in modern scattered families, in crises brothers and sisters turn up; in distress they offer support, and in need assume at least a degree of responsibility. Too, there is an enjoyment, a camaraderie, an ease in each other's company and a relaxation into comfortable roles and sense of "brotherhood." Indeed, despite current novels, there is more affection than aversion between most siblings, more security than competition.

How do such permanent bonds develop if the whole of childhood consists of sibling rivalry? Mrs. Carroll Davis has had the most ingenious idea that from the rivalry that brothers and sisters display, sibling relationships grow. Out of difference, at one and the same time, the child strengthens his relationship with his brother and enhances his own uniqueness.

Mrs. Davis' research[1] has consisted in observing five pairs of siblings not merely during childhood, but over a period of twenty-five years. From her consideration of these records, she says:

> Our hypothesis is that—each child uses his sibling as a means of his own self-definition—and is used by his brother for the same purpose.
>
> We have called this dynamic process between them, 'differing.' 'Differing' is not a polite word for quarrelling or fighting. It goes much deeper and is less specific.

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*This article has been written by Dr. Northway from Mrs. Carroll Davis' research and many conversations with members of the research staff interested in the matter.

[1]This is part of the Institute's longitudinal study which is in preparation for publication.

Each child uses the other to measure his own 'differentness,' as a way of seeing himself as unique, of becoming a person in his own right. Many things contribute to the child's sense of self and of individuality, but the other non-adult in his small home world—this other child who is beside him all his growing years—is most apt to be a mirror which shows him himself.

This becomes apparent only in a long view. At any one point in time, it is obscured by the details of behaviour, rivalry, competition, companionship—how the children are getting along together. Over a period of years, it is possible to see how the siblings' over-all patterns of development are related to each other.

We found that each child's feelings about himself and about his sibling are so closely bound up together, particularly in childhood, that they cannot be comprehended separately.

Each child has his own distinct characteristics and make-up; but in his small world these are always seen in contrast to his brother or sister. One is the funny fellow, the other serious; one is the student, the other a playboy, and so on. Every adult within range contributes to this differing by his comments. And the contrast between the children affects the *slant* of adult remarks.

Some children find uniqueness easy to establish—for others it is an intense preoccupation.

The parents seem to play a variety of roles in this aspect of their children's lives—according to whether they expect differences or strive for uniformity; whether they have broad values and interests or narrow ones. Sex and age differences have various effects.[2]

WHAT ARE THE IMPLICATIONS?

If Mrs. Davis is right in believing that differing is a means of enhancing a person's uniqueness through a relationship; if by contrasting himself rather than comparing himself with his brother, the child becomes not merely sibling but self, if he grows to see the other not merely as brother but as a person in his own right, perhaps we should consider what this means to those of us adults (parents or teachers) who are dealing with brothers and sisters.

We shall be wise if we expect (and accept) our Johnny and George to be different and not alike. It is, of course, easier to *expect* than it is to *accept*. If we ourselves value scholarship and good sound work it will be natural for us to accept Johnny's first class standing, rather than George's scraping through by the skin of his teeth and the kindness of his teacher. Indeed, we may decide to have a good serious talk with George and in the course of it even say "I don't understand you George! Johnny always got his homework done. Why can't you be more like your brother?" Nothing, of course, will be more effective in making George more determined to be like himself—and next year make certain that neither the skin of his teeth nor his teacher will pull him through to be a replica of Johnny. Possibly if we looked a little more clearly at George, we should see what assets he had that made him George, not Johnny; the jokes, the fun and games, the casualness he brings to the home, the

[2]Carroll Davis, *Sibling Influence on Development*, a paper given to the Canadian Psychological Association, June, 1957.

twinkle and zest he has; our family wouldn't be the same gay place without these. True, we rarely say to Johnny "Why don't you be fun like your brother is?" But we really should not like our family nearly as much without George. Most of us like to think of ourselves as tolerant people having a broad sense of human values, yet we are not always tolerant of our own children. We want them to be as we are, or as we should like to be, or like their brother who is like what we want him to be. Our children must grow to be themselves, not dim reflections of their parents or their brother.

Lionel Trilling[3] writes, *If we imagine a father of many children who truly loves them all, we may suppose that he will see very vividly their differences from one another, for he has no wish to impose upon them a similarity which would be himself; and he will be quite willing to see their faults, for his affection leaves him free to love them, not because they are faultless, but because they are they.*

WHAT ABOUT BICKERING?

But what about the bickering, the arguing, the quarrels? These are sometimes exasperating to parents, especially if they have to listen to them. Of course, actually, they do not. Most homes can arrange that there are times and places for argument other than the dinner table or amid adult conversation.

Perhaps we lost something when we replaced the old-fashioned parlor with the rumpus room. The parlor was reserved for quiet discussions and mannerly behaviour, a much-needed place in any household. We could, however, in our ranch houses define "parlor areas" wherein only conventional and considerate activities were allowed. We do not really need rumpus rooms; the rest of our living space should be free for that.

Rumpus has its values. Indeed, in another study Mrs. Davis[4] discovered that bickering, argument and chit-chat are the means by which children work out a mutually satisfactory solution to a problem; at least they do so if they are *allowed* to do so. A group of Institute parents co-operated with Mrs. Davis by keeping verbatim records of their children's chit-chat that arose around a difference of opinion. Much of the conversation sounded quite ridiculous when recorded on paper. Repetitions, denials, rebuttals, "Yes I am," "No you aren't," and so on. But what other techniques do young children have to solve a mutual problem? They do not possess the supposed logic of adults; nor have they learned the rules of parliamentary procedure. Back-chat is about all they possess.[5] The im-

[3]In *The Liberal Imagination: Essays on Literature & Society* (Viking, 1950).

[4]Research Study, 1955–56.

[5]Verbatim records of adult discussion groups do not show much use of logic either; it is surprising how much, except for the words used, they resemble the back-chat of children.

portant thing is that through it they are discovering they *can* reach a satisfactory solution. Out of difference comes satisfaction, and because two individuals have participated together, their relationship is strengthened, not weakened; augmented, not dissipated.

SIBLINGS: A PERMANENT RELATIONSHIP AMONG CONTEMPORARIES

Every child, of course, will form relationships with children who are not his siblings. In these too, he will grow to be different and to be himself. Sibling relationships differ from outside associations, for the brother or sister cannot go away if he or she is displeased. No matter what the quarrel was, Bobby will wake up tomorrow and find Johnny still there and be extremely glad that this is so. Inevitably, there is a reconciliation and out of this comes growth. Sibling relationships are easier to build than to destroy, for they have the strength of permanency and continuation beneath them. From early childhood the brothers have been together. Their togetherness has become, as it were, a habit, a part of life as natural as possessing one's own hands or feet. It will hold, not break, because of incidental rivalry; indeed, its rivalry may be a symptom of its security. We can afford to vie with those we truly love for we have nothing to lose and our gain is in the zest of the contending. The stronger a relationship, the more it can stand differences. We may feel anger, exasperation, hostility, or disapproval towards those we really trust because we know the relationship is strong enough to sustain itself in spite of them and because of them.

In *My Fair Lady* Henry Higgins has a splendid song in which he expresses his desire to throw Eliza Doolittle to the wolves and "let the hellcat freeze,"—his only justification for not getting rid of this exasperating woman is that "I've grown accustomed to her voice, accustomed to her looks, accustomed to her face." We can usually find reasons to explain our anger; rarely can we find ones to explain our secure and serene relationships. Our relationships with our siblings are part of us and we of them. We cannot define their importance. We know, however, we have grown accustomed to their smiles and frowns, their ups and downs. They are second nature to us now.

Sibling rivalry? Of course, we can observe it and record it. Sibling relationship is so obvious that our psychological eyes have too long failed to perceive its existence and its meaning.

Are there any Questions?

EDITH A. DEWEY*

AS THE LIGHTS went on, there was a shuffling of feet and a squirming in chairs that had suddenly become hard. About two dozen boys and girls of ten to thirteen years blinked as their eyes grew accustomed to the light, after darkness during the movie.

"Are there any questions?" asked the leader. Up went several hands. The leader nodded at a ten-year-old boy. "What does *premature* mean?" asked Jimmy. The leader smiled warmly and, turning to the group, asked, "Has anyone else wondered about this question?" Up went about a dozen hands. "I see that quite a number of people are wondering about Jimmy's question. Does anyone know what we mean when we say a baby is premature?" Thus the discussion started. It continued for over an hour.

What was the occasion? The film *Human Growth*[1] had been shown to two junior Sunday School classes. The leader was a psychiatrist and a parent, who was known to the children. Ten days earlier the children's parents had seen the film, and discussed the subject of sex education for children. They had voted unanimously to have the film shown to their children, with discussion following. The film shows how human life begins; it outlines prenatal development, birth, child development and the changes that take place at adolescence.

What kinds of questions do ten- to thirteen-year-olds ask? Are they embarrassed? Is it wise to show this film to a group of both boys and girls? Should they be thinking about such things? These are questions parents ask. Suppose we go back to this group. . . .

Questions were asked about fertilization: "Can a sperm cell enter a female cell when another baby is already growing?" "If the sperm goes into the egg cell how does the mother know?" "What would happen if a sperm cell went into an unripened egg cell?" "Can all the eggs in a woman be fertilized at once?" "I heard that a mother had a baby and there was a baby inside the baby. Could that be?"

The children wondered about siamese twins: "How do you get siamese twins?" "How can siamese twins be born?"

The film omitted some details and the children wondered: "When a

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[1]*Human Growth:* Eddie Albert Production; 19 minutes; sound, colour; 16 mm. (available for rental from Canadian Film Institute, 142 Sparks St., Ottawa, Canada, also, in Metropolitan Toronto, from Rotary Film Library, Toronto Branch, Canadian Mental Health Association).

baby is fed by the tube before it is born, is the tube used by another baby?" "How can you regulate the time for a baby to be born?" "How are babies born prematurely?" "What do you call it when a mother cannot have a baby?" "Can they tell whether a baby is a boy or a girl before it is born?"

There were questions about pregnancy: "If a woman doesn't have menstruation, does that mean she's pregnant?" "Can a woman become pregnant any time she wants to—at Christmas or in the summer?" "Can you have as many babies as you want?"

There were also questions about teen-age pregnancies: "If a girl of 13 or 14 has a baby, who will look after it?" "When a girl has a baby, will it be 9 months or earlier or later?" "If a girl of 14 had a baby and she wasn't married, where would the sperm cell come from?" A 13-year-old girl asked, "If a girl about my age was pregnant and didn't want to have a baby, couldn't she go to a doctor or have a shot or something?"

Parents had wondered whether it would be wise to have boys and girls together for such a discussion. There was only one point when the group seemed ill at ease. A girl of 11 stated: "If two people sleep together, when they have twin beds then they can't have any children." At this point the atmosphere suddenly tightened, but the leader's quiet, matter-of-fact manner, as he explained further, quickly dispelled the embarrassment, and by the time the next question was asked the group was at ease again. Both boys and girls participated eagerly; there seemed to be no hesitation due to presence of the other sex. Since these classes are regularly co-educational, separation of boys and girls for such a discussion might have created a more awkward situation, rather than eased it. Discussion continued considerably past the regular closing hour, with the group eager to stay and question further. Every child participated directly or indirectly; all seemed keenly interested.

This film *Human Growth* is used with 11-year-old children in the sex education curriculum of Oregon public schools. Educators feel that the film should not replace discussions between parent and child, and that the school should not replace the home as the prime source of sex education for children. However, the film can be a valuable supplement to other information, and helpful to the parents who find it difficult to talk about such matters with young people. Parents and children seeing the film together find they can discuss *it*, where otherwise there might be difficulty in approaching the subject. In the unfortunate instance where a child has received no sex education except what he has been able to ferret out for himself from reading and from clandestine discussions with his peers, the film offers accurate information which should dispel misunderstandings.

Much depends on the discussion leader, of course. Apparently in the group observed all children were free from tension. However, the child for whom these matters have been hushed at home may be very disturbed inwardly; a skilled leader will be alert to such children and arrange further individual discussion. The leader described here, besides being able to give accurate information, was able to win the children's confidence. His warm, quiet personality helped to create an atmosphere of permissiveness. There was no "smart-alecky" behaviour by children who were trying to cover up their own embarrassments, for they were not embarrassed.

Some parents will be surprised at the questions asked by children of 10 to 13. Children *do* wonder about human growth and reproduction. Those who feel free to ask their parents are fortunate indeed. However, all these children welcome the opportunity offered when in a friendly, relaxed atmosphere they are asked, "Are there any questions?"

FOR REFERENCE READING

Books

SUEHSDORF, A. *Facts of Life for Children.* Bobbs Merrill, 1954.
SWIFT, E. H. *Step by Step in Sex Education.* Macmillan, 1948.
WHITMAN, H. *Let's Tell the Truth about Sex.* Pellegrine & Cudahy, 1948.

Pamphlets

BERNHARDT, K. S. *Sex Education.* Institute of Child Study. 10¢.
When Children Ask About Sex. 132 East 74th St., New York 21: Child Study Association of America. 30¢.

BOOK REVIEWS

Understanding Your Adolescent, by BERNHARDT S. GOTTLIEB, M.D. Rinehart, N.Y., Clarke, Irwin Co., Toronto. Pp.252, $3.95.

Reading this book one can see that the author has a deep understanding of and feeling for adolescents and the difficulties they encounter in the process of growing up. The psychoanalytic theory is used to explain adolescent behavior; the theory is presented simply and clearly.

In the first part of the book, the adolescent's development is described. Going back to infancy, the author traces growth from oral to anal, phallic and the latent phases, showing what happens if development is arrested at any of these stages. From this basis, psychological development during adolescence is discussed; a typical boy and girl are used to illustrate each point.

The second half of the book deals with the problems and pitfalls of adolescence, six in number, each given a chapter. The final chapter is an excellent description of maturity.

Dr. Gottlieb's belief is that, when parents are having difficulty with their adolescents, the first step is understanding. He tries to bring this understanding to the readers. The book is, in fact, a mine of information about psychological processes.

Yet the very wealth of material mitigates against its usefulness. So much is said that an unsophisticated parent would be bewildered. Certainly it is not a first book for parents to read, nor is it a book for those without considerable background. Dr. Gottlieb may be right in his view that understanding is necessary, but parents in difficulty need help in utilizing this understanding in practical ways. While concrete help is not entirely lacking, there is too little of it for the average parent.

Parent educators and parents with considerable background will find this book helpful, although those who are unfamiliar with the psychoanalytical approach may not always find the interpretation easy to understand or completely convincing.

Marguerite Brown.

Hunting with Mr. Jorrocks, (from Handley Cross by R. S. Surtees). edited by LIONEL GOUGH; illustrated by EDWARD ARDIZZONE. Oxford University Press, London, 1956. Pp.186, $2.50.

The pronouncedly horse-and-hound portions of HANDLEY CROSS, first published in 1843, have been edited by Lionel Gough and presented as a new whole, entitled HUNTING WITH MR. JORROCKS.

As Master of Foxhounds, Mr. Jorrocks has many adventures both harrowing and harmless, with both people and "h'animals"; his journal recordings of some tell part of his story. A far cry (halloo!) from Gene Autry, Wyatt Earp et al, Mr. Jorrocks is essentially Pickwickian in flavour, and full of chortling subtleties. Edward Ardizzone's illustrations in pastel water-colour are particularly suitable.

For the linguistically sophisticated young and the whinny-seeking young and old, HUNTING WITH MR. JORROCKS is a delightful experience.

Boy Scout Jubilee, by E. E. REYNOLDS. Oxford University Press, London, 1957. Pp.146, $2.25.

The story of scouting for boys, from its early unrecognized beginnings to its present position of renown, is well worth the telling. In the summer of 1907, Robert Baden-Powell put some of his scouting ideas to the test with a group of twenty boys. During the summer of 1957, representatives of the now more than seven million Boys Scouts in at least 67 countries of the world have met in England to celebrate the jubilee of the foundation of the Movement and the centenary of the birth of its founder.

E. E. REYNOLDS captures well the spirit and enthusiasm of the Movement in his story, BOY SCOUT JUBILEE. The growth of the organization, its effectiveness in destroying racial and religious barriers, and its potentiality as a world-wide unifier of youth are presented clearly, and at times humourously, by both word and picture.

For those who wish to learn more of the wide work and worth of the Boy Scouts, this little book is recommended.

David Bain.

Welsh Legends and Folk-Tales, retold by GWYN JONES; illustrated by JOAN KIDDELL-MONROE. Oxford University Press, London, 1955. Pp.228, $2.50.

French Legends, Tales and Fairy Stories, retold by BARBARA LEONIE PICARD; illustrated by JOAN KIDDELL-MONROE. Oxford University Press, London, 1955. Pp.216, $2.50.

Russian Tales and Legends, retold by CHARLES DOWNING; illustrated by JOAN KIDDELL-MONROE. Oxford University Press, London, 1956. Pp.229, $2.50.

"The Fantastic or Mythical...at its best...can give us experiences we have never had and thus, instead of 'commenting on life', can add to it." So wrote C.S. Lewis in a 1956 article in the New York Times entitled "Sometimes Fairy Stories May Say Best What's to be Said". The 4th, 5th and 7th volumes in the Oxford series of Myths and Legends are at hand and give us cause to applaud Lewis' statement. The fantastic or mythical in the heritage of different peoples is here to amaze or amuse, absorb and certainly augment us, the readers. TV trips to outer space wing us into the future, myths and legends weave us into the past; our lives are added to by both. The mystery and adventure, the romance and grim ghoulishness of today's comic books and "children's programs" are more than matched by these time-tested tales, so very well told.

Gwyn Jones retells WELSH LEGENDS AND FOLK-TALES with a lilt (and an aid to us in "Pronouncing the Names"!) : "The Trials of Dyfed", "The Dream of Rhonabwy", "The Woman of Llyn-y-fan"...

Barbara Leonie Picard, always delightful, brings new life to the stories of "Roland and Oliver", "Aucassin and Nicolette", "Melusine"... in FRENCH LEGENDS, TALES AND FAIRY STORIES.

Boyards and muzhiks (noblemen and peasants!); witches and wolves; deeds of daring, strength and cunning tramp through the RUSSIAN TALES AND LEGENDS as Charles Downing tells them; he includes, in an abridged and loosely poetic form, "The Lay of Prince Igor".

Fantastic is the word, a good word, for these stories which say well "what's to be said". It is a good word too for Joan Kiddell-Monroe's illustrations in colour which augment all three volumes; her creatures all but breathe and move! We rest assured this series of myths and legends adds indeed to life.

Lindsay Weld.

Horsemen of the Western Plateaus, The Nez Perce Indians, by SONIA BLEEKER; illustrated by PATRICIA BOODELL. William Morrow and Company, New York; George J. McLeod Ltd., Toronto, 1957. Pp.152, $2.75

Another in the series on American Indians by Sonia Bleeker, HORSEMEN OF THE WESTERN PLATEAUS tells of the Nez Perce Indians through the experiences of a Nez Perce boy, Spotted Salmon, in the early 19th century. The story of Chief Joseph is included with a lesson in justice and human rights implied; the decimation of the Nez Perce and their ultimate relegation to reservations by ruthless Whites took place in the latter half of the 19th century, during Joseph's lifetime. Patricia Boodell's black and white drawings outline sharply the activities of these once free people.

Lindsay Weld.

The Cow Who Fell in the Canal, by PHYLLIS KRASILOVSKY; illustrated by PETER SPIER. Doubleday (Canada) Ltd., 1957. Pp.32, $3.00

Hendrika was a very fat but unhappy cow living in Holland. She enjoyed eating. She enjoyed eating so much that she wandered farther and farther for the lush grass, and one day found herself floating down the canal on a raft. Suddenly she was wide awake and happy-happy because she was seeing the sights she had long heard about from Pieter, the horse, and also because everyone was giving her attention; people followed her and enjoyed her.

Peter Spier, a native of Holland, has drawn from scenes of his own childhood to illustrate the lively story of Hendrika in fine, fresh detail.

We read THE COW WHO FELL IN THE CANAL to a group of grade one children and their delighted laughter left no doubt in our mind that this story is a "happy" one for children.

Marjory E. Warburton.

SOCIOMETRIC TESTING:

A Guide for Teachers

By Mary L. Northway and Lindsay Weld

This booklet is written for the teacher, counsellor or nursery school supervisor who wants to know more about the social relationships of her children. It describes how to construct, administer, score, and interpret a sociometric test and suggests ways by which teachers can help develop rich social experiences in the classroom. ". . . for practical aims, it replaces the reading of twenty thousand pages of sociometric literature."—*J. L. Moreno, Director, Moreno Institute, New York.* $1.95

CHEMICAL ANTHROPOLOGY:

A New Approach to Growth of Children

By Icie G. Macy and Harriet J. Kelly

This book presents the results of a ten-year inter-disciplinary investigation designed to show the integration and interaction of physical and chemical growth, developmental adaptations, and changes of physiologic functions of normal children as they age from four to twelve years. The united efforts of pediatricians, anatomists, roentgenologists, biochemists, nutritionists, and statisticians have permitted a wealth of collaborated experience and collection of data of wider scope than ever before attained on the physiologic complexities of growth. $3.75

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Fall reading for the Children

The Silver Branch

By ROSEMARY SUTCLIFF. The author of *The Eagle of the Ninth* has written another exciting historical novel about Roman Britain. This story tells of two young Roman soldiers who loyally serve the cause of Rome, helped by the Celtic jester whose silver branch gives the book its title. $2.50

The Thames Flows Down

By LAURIE OSMOND. This evocative and informative book, richly illustrated in black and white and in full colour, presents a vivid picture of the interaction of men and natural forces upon the great river from earliest times to the present day. $3.00

The Blue Boat

By WILLIAM MAYNE. An absorbing story by the author of *A Swarm in May* describing the adventures of Hugh and Christopher who, while on holiday, discover the blue boat that carries them on an exciting journey across a magic lake. $2.25

The Children's Bells

By ELEANOR FARJEON. Here are verses of places and people, of saints and heroes, play songs and songs for all seasons of the year by one of the few real poets for children. This is a companion volume to Eleanor Farjeon's medal-winning collected short stories, *The Little Bookroom*. $3.00

Around the Year

By TASHA TUDOR. Superbly drawn pictures form the setting for Miss Tudor's simple verses about each month of the year. A companion volume to her *I is One* and *A is for Annabelle*. For children aged 3 to 6. $3.25

One Rainy Night

By PELAGIE DOANE. The farm setting and the mood evoked by a rainy night make the adventures of the little girl in this book an enchanting story to read aloud to the youngest ones. $2.25

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